



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

mentioned and brought up against him. Known hypocrisy, and mock humility, are less obnoxious and more respected. The frank simplicity of Cotton Mather continually exposed him to attacks that affected his public standing, embittered his temper, and occasioned an old age of unhappiness and disappointment.

The high anticipations, that surrounded his entrance into life, subjected him both to observation and to jealousy. He aimed to maintain the position his ancestors had held in church and state, and claimed, too openly, similar influence and consideration. To the changes of times and circumstances he had not shrewdness enough to accommodate himself. The consequence was, that industry, learning, philanthropy, and talents enough to crown any name with distinction, could not secure him from final neglect and the pain of frustrated expectations.

We think his writings worthy of more consideration than they receive. There is often a richness of thought buried beneath his exuberance of learning and illustration, that well repays the labor of getting at it. Could his "Magnaalia" be relieved from its miserable punctuation, and the too liberal use of italics and capitals, the style would be found more clear and forcible than is generally supposed, and possessed of much of the peculiar qualities, that the admirers of Jeremy Taylor would strongly relish.

ART. II.—*Report, on Education in Europe, to the Trustees of the Girard College for Orphans.* By ALEXANDER DALLAS BACHE, LL. D., President of the College. Philadelphia : Lydia R. Bailey. 1839. 8vo. pp. 666.

THE extended report contained in the volume, of which the title is prefixed to this article, is the first-fruits of the most munificent literary endowment, originating in individual liberality, which has ever occurred in this country. Indeed, the annals of scholastic foundations in Europe present few instances of equal magnitude, and assuredly not more than two or three which are greater. The name of Stephen Girard has taken a place in the same category with those of

Sir Thomas Gresham, of Thomas Sutton, and of George Heriot.

A curious illustration of the practical operation of our political system,—its influence upon individual enterprise and feeling,—might be traced in the history of the accumulation of a fortune like that amassed by Mr. Girard, and its final appropriation to a plan of purely popular beneficence. A foreigner comes penniless to our shores. The liberal policy of the law and of public opinion receives him into the community. Barely acquainted with the language of the country, without education, without kindred or friends, without patronage, in a word, without any means external to himself, he seeks, and without difficulty finds, in an humble line of life, an opening for his industry. The lone man makes himself useful, and with his usefulness come connexions in business. The field of his labor becomes enlarged and more elevated. The genius for traffic, with which some men are endowed, enables him at every advance to find a firmer footing, and to plant himself more securely. For a time, one of the crew of some of the small craft that ply on a river, he gradually raises himself to some authority on board of a coasting vessel. He relinquishes the vocation of a mariner, and, with his small earnings and savings, stocks a small shop. In a few years he is in a state of transition to the condition of a merchant. Traffic, that scarce ventured beyond the hail of the voice, or the range of a good spyglass, has learned a bolder venture, and begins to vex the seas of distant climes. The ventures prove successful, or, to speak more accurately, there is in them wisdom and foresight, the compound of boldness and prudence, which makes a merchant's might. The man, whose trading began in small channels, has gained a standing in the centre of a commercial metropolis. A new department for his skill and enterprise is found, and the successful merchant becomes also the thrifty and prosperous banker; and thus his wealth, never lying idle, is magnified in a ratio almost exceeding calculation.

Such is a hasty sketch of the formation of Stephen Girard's estate,—the earnings of individual effort, with poverty for a starting-point. He came to this country from France, it is said, as a cabin boy. He was a fresh-water sailor on the river Delaware, and subsequently, as he mentions in his will, he traded to New Orleans, in the first instance, as "first

officer " of the vessel, and afterwards, as " master and part-owner." The designation he gives himself in his will, is, " mariner and merchant." He went into commercial business, in a small way, as a grocer. A few years more made him a shipping merchant, and he was for a considerable time the largest ship-owner in the port of Philadelphia. When he became a capitalist, he sought the growing gains of a shrewd and cautious banker, and soon was strong enough to purchase, for his own use of private banking, the building which had been erected and was used as the banking-house of the nation during the continuance of the charter of the first bank of the United States. The accumulation of money was with Girard the one great aim of life, pursued with an unremitting and unwearying assiduity. He was a man, who, having been separated in early life from his kindred, suffered the ties of consanguinity to hang but loosely on him. His habits of living were simple, or rather austere and parsimonious. His sole recreation, and that was recreation mingled with thrift, was rural occupation on his farm in the immediate neighbourhood of Philadelphia, to which for many years he daily retired, after the business of his banking-house closed. He was a man of close counsels. The work of his life may literally be said to have been achieved by himself alone. No sorcerer ever environed himself with a magic circle more impenetrable, a line to be crossed only at the risk of his displeasure. His temperament was unsocial. There was a wide, and, we may add, a dreary space, between him and his kindred, his connexions, his assistants in business, his fellow-laborers, not companions, in the counting-room and the banking-house, and his fellow-citizens generally. During life, his name was not associated with plans of beneficence. Charity was timid in approaching to solicit a bounty. He was a solitary-hearted being, and his fellow-creatures knew not the avenues to his feelings. When the credit of the national government was depressed during the late war with Great Britain, Girard was one of the capitalists who replenished the treasury of the country from their private coffers ; and he fostered important internal improvements in his own State by advances, when the work was in danger of standing still, and other men were afraid or unable to give assistance. But, in these cases, the impulse was the foresight of a safe deposit and an increased return, the instinct of investment.

In short, Stephen Girard was such a man, as, had his lot been cast, like that of the London banker, Thomas Sutton, the founder of the Charter House, in the same age and in the same community with Ben Jonson, would have furnished a better mark for the dramatist's satire.

If the acquisition of so large an estate by such a man as Girard is any illustration of the political system under which he lived, and which, placing no impediments in his way, gave abundant security to his possession, still more is its ultimate appropriation an evidence of the influence of popular spirit. The laborious earnings of a long, and, in a certain way, self-denying life, were destined, not to the aggrandizement of a few, some short-lived aristocracy of wealth, but to be diffused amidst the people, for the promotion of the people's best interests. The idea is not to be entertained for a moment, that there can be any adequate substitute when there is a seclusion from the natural social affections ; because undoubtedly the happiness of mankind is best advanced by the cultivation of kindly emotions, the sympathies of blood and other impulses of nature, which are unwisely sacrificed to any scheme of beneficence, no matter how plausible. Yet there is something redeeming for a career of close-handed money-making, of avarice, denying alike indulgence to self and liberality to others, when the fact comes to light, that all this course of living has had a purpose beyond what the world could see,—the blind and heart-chilling lust that gloats over the swelling coffer. It is some justification of a life like Girard's, that all his labors had a destination into which no selfish principle entered. The city of his adoption, where his money had been earned, was to be his heir, and back into her lap the accumulated wealth of years was to be poured. With the exception of comparatively a few legacies, the bulk of his estate, amounting to some six millions of dollars, was bequeathed to the city of Philadelphia, as a trustee to fulfil certain designs, which he supposed best calculated to promote her permanent interests. The final appropriation of Mr. Girard's property was, during his life, a mystery fruitful of conjectures and speculations ; and when death broke the seal of it, there was amazement in finding, that he had been maturing, in the solitary counsels of his own mind, a great scheme of education. With no pretensions to any acquirements of science or literature, and successful in a worldly way beyond competition without

them, some secret sympathy with the helplessness of ignorance had touched him. Perhaps, when his thoughts were reposing in security upon his millions, some recollection of hours of desolation and friendlessness and anguish in his early days rose among them, and from the recollection sprang the conception, which became, no doubt, for many years, the master idea which controlled him.

"I have been for a long time," (such is the language of his will,) "impressed with the importance of educating the poor, and of placing them, by the early cultivation of their minds, and the developement of their moral principles, above the many temptations, to which through poverty and ignorance they are exposed; and I am particularly desirous to provide, for such a number of poor, male, white, orphan children, as can be trained in one institution, a better education, as well as a more comfortable maintenance, than they usually receive from the application of the public funds."

It mitigates the harshness of Mr. Girard's character, to reflect that he was, as it were, administering his estate so that the sphere of his bounty might be enlarged in proportion to its increase. The dark shades of his parsimony assume a brighter hue, when it is regarded as the stern integrity of a trustee, the watchfulness of a guardian over a fund, which he is husbanding for the good of those whose interests are committed to him.

The short extract from Mr. Girard's will, which we have given above, states the general design of his endowment, to the accomplishment of which, he bequeathed two millions of dollars, with an additional provision, that if the number of orphans applying for admission shall make that sum inadequate to meet their wants, a large residuary fund shall also be appropriated. It may well be questioned whether Mr. Girard displayed his wonted sagacity or shrewdness, when he delegated a trust of this kind to a city corporation, exposed to the frequent fluctuations of party politics, and thereby involving the institution, to which he was solicitous to give permanence and stability, in the jeopardy of changes brought about by the operation of causes entirely extrinsic. The heated atmosphere of party politics has, in this country, become very penetrating, and the time may come when it will be difficult to exclude it from that region in which a different temperature should be preserved.

When George Heriot, the jeweller of King James the First, devised his estate for the founding of a “ hospital,” for the education of “ the poor fatherless boyes ” of Edinburgh, he had the wisdom to commit to men, whom, modestly, he deemed more competent than himself, the digestion of a plan ; and accordingly one of his executors, the Rev. Dr. Balcanquall, was intrusted with the responsible duty of drawing up the statutes for the organization and government of the institution, and even of deciding upon the plan of the building. Mr. Girard’s course was a different, and, we apprehend, a less sagacious one. His will presents a remarkable elaboration of directions respecting the edifice for the habitation and use of the orphans, which, it might readily have been anticipated, would be attended with practical difficulties and embarrassment. An architectural passion seems to have been predominant in the testator’s mind, and, yielding to it, he has prescribed dimensions, materials, internal arrangements, a *marble* roof, the staircases, the measure of the steps, so many inches “ in the rise,” and so many “ in the tread,” and a hundred such details, the combination of which, in execution, we can well conceive to have been in no small degree perplexing, and perhaps in some particulars impracticable. It is curious, too, to observe how his notions of architectural beauty and propriety seemed to centre round his familiar and favorite places of resort, and his disposition to prescribe them as models of imitation ; —

“ The windows of the second and third stories, I recommend to be made in the style of those in the first and second stories of my present dwellinghouse, North Water street, on the eastern front thereof ; and outside each window I recommend, that a substantial and neat iron balcony be placed, &c. &c., as is the case in the lower story of my house at my place in Passyank township.”

Again ;

“ At each place of entrance there shall be two gates, one opening inward, and the other outward ; those opening inward to be of iron, and in the style of the gates north and south of my banking-house,” &c. &c.

We have referred to these matters, because to them, we believe, is ascribed the unlooked-for delay in organizing the institution. A professional interpretation of the terms of the will, does not sanction an opening of the College for the re-

ception of the orphans until the buildings are completed. In 1833, the corner-stone of the main building, a structure of gigantic dimensions and of rich Corinthian style, was laid in the immediate neighbourhood of the city of Philadelphia ; and, though the work has been prosecuted with all the rapidity compatible with its durability and the supply of marble from various quarries of the land, it is understood that the completion cannot be looked for in less than four years more.

The preparatory measure of electing a President, and delegating him to visit Europe for the purpose of making a thorough examination of the institutions of education in the principal countries, has produced the valuable work now before us. Considering the vital importance of the subject to the people, President Bache's mission may be regarded as possessing an interest not secondary to any mission of diplomacy. The nature of the duties confided to him will appear more clearly from the general instructions contained in the letter addressed to him, by the President of the Board of Trustees of the Girard College, Mr. Nicholas Biddle.

"The Board of Trustees are charged by the city of Philadelphia to prepare a system of instruction for the Girard College for Orphans. For this purpose, they are anxious to have the most accurate information of the best means used for the same purpose elsewhere, and you have been selected to obtain it. Your object, then, is to visit all establishments in Europe similar to the Girard College ; and, as these are found principally, if not exclusively, in England, Scotland, Ireland, France, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Prussia, and the rest of the states of Germany, these countries will form the natural limits of your tour. Accordingly, all institutions in each of those countries resembling the Girard College, or any others which promise to afford useful information in organizing it, you will see and examine. Your own reflection will readily suggest the points of information desired ; and I will, therefore, merely enumerate a few, which may serve as a basis for your own extensive investigation. Of every establishment visited by you, we should wish to know, —

1. Its history, general administration, and the nature and extent of its funds.
2. Its interior organization and government ; the names, titles, and duties of all the persons employed in it.
3. Who are admitted to it, and the forms and terms of admission ; and, where it is professedly for the education of orphans, who are considered as orphans.

4. The number and classification of the scholars, and their term of residence.

5. Their course of studies, in the minutest detail, from the commencement to the end of their residence in the institution, with the text-books and other works used.

6. As a part of that course, specially important to the Girard College, we should desire to know the regulations or the practice by which, among a large body of scholars, a portion, after continuing for some time in the institution, are permitted to begin their active career in life, — while others, with greater aptitude or greater willingness to learn, are carried up to the higher branches of education. The nature and the mode of that discrimination would be highly interesting, — as would also be, —

7. The precise extent to which moral and religious instruction is proposed to be given, and is actually given, and also by whom and in what form that instruction is conveyed.

8. The mechanical arts taught, — the mode of teaching them, — the models, tools, and implements of all kinds employed, — and the manner in which the practice of these arts is mingled with the routine of studies.

9. The system of rewards and punishments in regard to studies or personal conduct.

10. The general police and discipline of the school.

11. The amusements, — gymnastic exercises, — games of all kinds, uniting instruction with agreeable relaxation, — together with the number and extent of the vacations, pecuniary allowance, or personal indulgences, to the scholars.

12. The diet and clothing of the scholars.

13. The regulations in regard to health, hours of study and of rest, arrangement as to sleeping and eating, and the whole routine of each day's employment.

14. The expenses of the school, including salaries and all incidents, with the average annual expense of each scholar.

15. The structure of the buildings, the arrangement of dormitories, refectories, playgrounds, and workshops, illustrated by drawings, where they can be procured.

16. As a proper foundation for similar statistical inquiries in this country, you will collect all the information you can in respect to the proportion of orphans to the rest of the community." — pp. iv — vi.

This was a large field to operate in ; a trust, the faithful execution of which required time, toil, and patience, a powerful and practised observation, and a well disciplined judgment. It was well concluded by Professor Bache, that the limited purpose of the Girard College, — an eleemosynary

institution for the education and care of orphans, — did not preclude the necessity of making an examination of the general establishments of education as well as those more closely resembling it. The chief general value of the Report is founded on the information it furnishes respecting European education, and the actual processes in a great variety of institutions. At the same time, it is due to the author to bear in mind, that his researches, and the report of them, were meant to have a bearing upon one specific object.

The compilation of a report from materials so abundant as those collected by Professor Bache, in a tour extended through two years of unintermittent application, must needs, from that very abundance, have been a process of considerable difficulty. A *report* will often lose much of its value, and, indeed, its very character as a report, when the opinions of the reporter are suffered to supersede the statements of facts on which those opinions are grounded. On the other hand a report may dwindle into a lifeless detail, a spiritless enumeration of particulars, — unless the mind of the reporter shall have a kind of mastery of the whole ground, guiding and controlling the whole subject by inductions and generalizations, instead of limiting itself to a barren process of mere observation. The aim of a report must be, to keep in their true proportions the writer's general conclusions and the presentation of facts to furnish a test of their accuracy. We find, that Professor Bache's tour included visits to nearly three hundred schools and institutions of education in Great Britain, France, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, Austria, Prussia, and the other states of Germany, — constituting the most elaborate mission of the kind ever undertaken. How much of unprofitable and thankless toil must of necessity have been involved in such an examination it is easy to conjecture, though Mr. Bache has, with good feeling and judgment, refrained from the ungrateful task of recording the numerous failures and mistakes in the work of education, which came under his observation, unless a reference to them was necessary to illustrate some principle, either positively or negatively. His method of presenting the results of his labors appears to us to be the most judicious that could have been adopted, both in reference to an immediate application to the wants of the Girard College, and for its general bearing on the cause of education. A more imposing and osten-

tations plan might have been devised, which would have given greater prominence to the writer's opinions and theories of education, than the descriptive form admits.

"As best calculated to present the impressions of the actual results of education, I have adopted the descriptive form for my Report, and have purposely avoided summing up the conclusions, or presenting a review of them, separately from the facts, that the force of the opinions may not be weakened by appearing out of this connexion. It is true, that the remarks must be considered as general inductions from numerous facts, and not inferences from single instances ; but these instances serve as their best illustration, if not sufficient, taken singly, to prove that they are just. These remarks suggested themselves at first as queries to be answered by further observation." — pp. 9, 10.

This seems to us to be the true philosophical method of dealing with a subject, very modestly stated. The remark suggesting itself at first as a query, is the first act of the mind in its process of induction ; the *prudens interrogatio*, which has wisely been pronounced the *dimidium scientiae* ; the questioning, which, so long as it is kept from passing too hastily from interrogation, and thus being converted into dogma, is indeed an anticipation of truth. We are disposed to advert to this matter, because the work before us will, in all probability, have the weight of authority on questions connected with education ; and it is essential in ascertaining its title to authority, to observe the spirit in which the author's investigations were conducted. He brought to the execution of his responsible trust an experience in practical education, acquired as a Professor in the University of Pennsylvania ; but more than this, he brought what was far more valuable than experience, a perfect fairness of mind on the subject he was to deal with. It is impossible to peruse the volume without being struck with the candor, which is its pervading characteristic ; the entire freedom from bias, either of preposition or of prejudice ; the openness of mind to conviction, the want of which too often makes the business of observation itself absolutely futile. Men are much too apt to set out in their investigations with preconceived notions, — with their minds made up, or with such a leaning as amounts to the same thing ; and the consequence inevitably is, that truth must somehow or other (to borrow a phrase of Shak-

speare's) be “ buckled within the belt of their rule ” ; and hence it happens, that she is so often seen sorely girded in the cincture of some self-sufficient hypothesis.

We do not propose to follow Professor Bache systematically through the Report, or to scrutinize his opinions on various principles of education, scattered through it as the results of his investigations and of subsequent reflection. Such an attempt would not only exceed our bounds, but would be an injurious substitute for the accurate statement of his views in connexion with an abundant collection of facts. Our intention is, simply, to give a cursory account of the volume (which, from its mode of publication, may not be very generally circulated), its contents, and the general tone of the author, with a quotation of some passages which have chanced to arrest our attention, rather than any disquisition of our own upon the much discussed subject of education.

The general arrangement is thus stated ;

“ This Report will be divided into two parts, the first relating to the means provided for the education of orphans, the second to the systems of general education. Corresponding to these divisions, there are two groups of institutions which present, in general, different objects for consideration ; in the first, the government, discipline, and domestic economy, as well as the instruction, are to be examined ; while in the second, the instruction is the chief point of interest. Every individual institution in the first group should furnish moral, intellectual, and physical education ; many in the second are necessarily more limited in their design.” — p. 10.

The Report opens with an interesting account of the “ Hospital ” for orphans, founded in Edinburgh by the well-known George Heriot, rather more than two centuries ago. In his description of the life of the “ Heriot's boys,” we soon find an opportunity of becoming acquainted with Professor Bache's opinions and feelings on the subject of discipline. The excellent religious instruction and training are represented as operating powerfully on the general deportment of the youthful inmates of the establishment, and also on their subsequent career in active life. An erroneous regulation respecting punishment suggests some remarks on the general subject of discipline, which appear to us to be conceived in the true spirit.

"The regulations require, that 'the more degrading kinds of corporal punishment shall be as seldom as possible resorted to,' and yet counteract the good effect of this provision by directing, that 'they shall not be inflicted in the private classes, but only in what is called "the public school," in presence of the house-governor,' thus rendering the degradation most certain by the publicity of the punishment. It is true, these chastisements are rarely inflicted, and the regulations provide, that 'they shall not be resorted to for mere literary negligence, if unaccompanied by moral blame.' The house-governor has great latitude in regard to the character of the punishments, and I am sure exercises a sound discretion in reference to them.

"There can be no doubt, that it is more dangerous to blunt the sensibilities of a youth to moral reproof, than to harden him by corporal chastisement. Hence such chastisements may be preferable, in certain cases where reproof has failed, to a continuance of the attempt to correct by admonition. This supposes it to be administered in private, without temper, and as a last resort. Some dispositions are better acted upon by the deprivation of indulgences by confinement, and similar penalties of this class, where remonstrances have failed; while others require something more immediate in its action. In many schools in England, where the rod was once freely used, it has been almost, and in others entirely, laid aside. In schools like these, where the youth is entirely dependent upon the institution, I am fully persuaded, that, with proper treatment, it need be resorted to very seldom, if at all. Few dispositions are not open to kindness, especially under these circumstances, and no master has the qualities appropriate to such an institution, who prefers the repulsive system to the encouraging. I refer to the example of the English schools, because they have held out longest against the modern improvements in discipline, and their relinquishment of such means is a stronger argument than could be derived from the more gentle discipline of the continent. The spirit of kindness between master and pupil, which exists in many of the continental schools, the confidence that renders him, as it were, the head of a family circle, are delightful to witness, and insure, better than stripes, the obedience of his pupils. I believe that this species of discipline, which *leads* the pupil instead of *driving* him, may be considered as particularly congenial to the American character. The governors of Heriot's say, that 'it is earnestly recommended, that as far as possible, prevention of faults be employed; and that gentle treatment be practised with the children.' Thus, as far as their recom-

mendation goes, they are on the side where I should prefer to range myself." — pp. 27, 28.

The same sound judgment and kindly feeling are observable, wherever matters of discipline are referred to in the Report. The subject is an important and a difficult one. Its interest and its perplexities will endure, so long as pupils have the traits of youth, its follies and fickleness, its irregularity and immaturity, and teachers fall short of perfect discretion and patience, equalling the meekness of the saints. Discipline is a thing not to be described. It is not severity, with which it is often confounded; nor is it weak indulgence, which not unfrequently is made the substitute. A change has taken place in public opinion, since the times when the one thing needful was beating. There is a growing tendency, in which we rejoice, to dispense to the utmost possible degree with corporal chastisement. It is a reformation, of which the epoch may be computed from the day of that dinner-party at which Cecil entertained the Counsellors of Queen Elizabeth, and with them that gentle-spirited old scholar, Roger Ascham, the court and the attendants of the monarch having retired to Windsor during the prevalence of the plague in London, in the year 1563. The table-talk took its impulse from the mention of the seemingly unimportant circumstance of some boys having run away from Eton school, for fear of the unmerciful flagellations. The severities practised at the great schools in England were discussed, being advocated by some of the guests, who were men of a severe nature, and reprobated by others of a milder disposition, Ascham himself favoring the birch-breakers. There was one of the company, Sir Richard Sackville, the father of Sackville, Lord Buckhurst, the author of the finest poem in the English language between Chaucer and Spenser, who spake not a word; but soon afterwards, calling Ascham aside, told him his own sad experience of his school-day sufferings, and begged him to commit to writing his views of the good bringing up of children. To this suggestion, prompted by the chance conversation of a company of statesmen and scholars, in a moment of relaxation from the cares of an anxious reign, we are indebted for that excellent and pleasant book, "The Scholemaster, by Roger Ascham, Preceptor to Queen Elizabeth." We have turned to it, in connexion with the subject of discipline, chiefly for the sake of one

genial passage, in which he describes, very pathetically, the injury that may be done to one whom he calls the "sad-natured and hard-witted child." — "A child that is still, silent, constant, and somewhat hard of wit, when he cometh to the school, is smallly regarded, little looked unto ; he lacketh teaching, he lacketh encouragement, he lacketh all things ; only he never lacketh beating, nor any word that may move him to hate learning, nor any deed, that may drive him from learning to any other kind of living." Another old worthy, of somewhat later date, that wise and witty divine, Thomas Fuller, has entered his appeal too against the unsparing and indiscriminate use of the rod, in his portraiture of "the good schoolmaster." "There are scholars, who are ingenious and industrious. To such a frown may be a whipping, and a whipping a death ; yea, where their master whips them once, shame whips them all the week after. — There are scholars that are ingenious and idle. These think, with the hare in the fable, that running with snails (so they count the rest of their school-fellows) they shall come soon enough to the post, though sleeping a good while before their starting. Oh ! a good rod would finely take them napping. — There are those that are dull and diligent. Their dulness is to be borne with, if they be diligent. That schoolmaster deserves to be beaten himself, who beats Nature in a boy for a fault. And I question whether all the whipping in the world can make their parts, which are naturally sluggish, rise one minute before the hour Nature hath appointed. — There are those that are invincibly dull and negligent also. Correction may reform the latter, not amend the former ; all the whetting in the world can never set a razor's edge on that which hath no steel in it. Such boys the good schoolmaster consigneth over to other professions. Shipwrights and boatmakers will choose those crooked pieces of timber, which other carpenters refuse."

An excess of corporal chastisement was an abuse in the olden time, as is evident from the protestations of both Ascham and Fuller, even if there were no other proof of it. The children of later times enjoy a better heritage. But the comparative disuse of the rod and other implements of bodily infliction, does not insure an exemption from other violations of true discipline. When one error goes out or is driven out, the door is very often left open for another to

walk in. It was a deep reproach against the system of the late Joseph Lancaster, that, while it professed an extraordinary clemency in abrogating the discipline of corporal punishment, it resorted to a species of more refined cruelty, substituting insults and ridicule, and making scorn and mockery principles of education. It must never be forgotten, that the heart of childhood is as tender as its body, and that blows may be struck, which will give a wound deeper and harder to heal than those of the birch or the ferule. There may be wanton cruelty in each of these methods, alike injudicious and injurious. But opposite to all this is the error of loose and feeble-handed indulgence. There is, we apprehend, often more wisdom in the style of driving horses than of governing children. It is the sign of a skilful driver not to use the whip frequently, not to hold a slack rein at one minute, and a tight rein at another ; the animal is fretted and fatigued by an unsteady hand as well as by an unsparing lash. It is a well-established fact, that the two kinds of teachers who are most obnoxious to their pupils, are those who punish with severity, and those who indulge with imbecility ; the latter, strange as it may seem, are probably the least liked of the two. Discipline is preventive rather than corrective ; its cardinal properties are foresight, firmness, gentleness, and justice. The best definition of it we remember to have met with, is in one of those aphoristic sentences, sometimes so happily framed by the late Mr. Coleridge. “ Discipline,” we quote the words from memory, “ is the *maximum* of watchfulness, with the *minimum* of punishment.” Extreme severity is not an attribute of true discipline. It is much easier to be capricious and fitful, passionate and tyrannical, than to govern with the gentleness and dignity of decision ; and it is a vulgar and shallow error to suppose, that a sound disciplinarian is arrayed with terrors. The discipline, over which, in that familiar passage in the “ Task,” Cowper pronounced his fine lament, was a personification of no such power ;

“ His eye was meek and gentle, and a smile
Played on his lips, and in his speech was heard
Paternal sweetness, dignity, and love.
The occupation dearest to his heart
Was to encourage goodness. He would stroke
The head of modest and ingenuous worth
That blushed at its own praise, and press the youth
Close to his side that pleased him.”

We have been led on to say more on this subject than we at first intended, from finding, in various places in the Report, opinions on the mode of governing youth, which have our most hearty concurrence, and to which we would invite especial attention.

The Liverpool Blue-Coat School is indicated by the author as affording one of the best examples he met with, to illustrate the results of the system of mutual instruction introduced by Dr. Bell, generally styled "the Madras system."

" I found all the intelligent persons connected with this institution so thoroughly convinced of the efficacy of the monitorial system, that I paused in drawing conclusions in regard to it, until I had compared this school with others upon the same or a similar system ; it is, however, one of the best examples which I saw of the Bell or Madras system, or, rather, of a modified form of it. The gentlemen above referred to are convinced, that the pupil-teachers are not only competent to give instruction, but that they frequently communicate it in a more intelligible form than teachers who are further removed by age and knowledge from the boys ; that the emulation among the pupil-teachers of different classes induces their pupils to exert themselves more than if under the charge of the master, and that the pupil-teachers are sufficiently exact and impartial in administering the rules of discipline and instruction. I state these opinions broadly, not wishing to conceal that the views of others, who have experience in the matter, are adverse to my own. I observed as closely as my opportunities would permit, here and elsewhere, and came to the conclusion that, in communicating knowledge not merely mechanical, the pupil-teachers are generally at fault, that they fail to keep up the attention of the pupils, and to preserve order among them, except in presence of the master, and that they do not always deal impartially in administering the rules. It is true, that if a class of ninety is to be confided to one master, monitors may be usefully employed to prepare the pupils for him. A similar plan is pursued at the best school on the Bell system which I have seen, the Madras College at St. Andrew's, Scotland. Further than this, I do not believe that monitors can be usefully employed, and, where the means of procuring a sufficient number of good teachers are not wanting, I would not at all recommend the use of the monitorial system in imparting instruction." — pp. 51, 52.

" The very useful exercise in the Madras system, in which

the pupils question each other, is well carried out in this school ; every boy thus must ask as well as answer questions. It, however, offers considerable practical difficulty. Some hold back from diffidence, others from fear of showing ignorance by their questions, and others are incompetent to it from ignorance of the subjects." — p. 53.

We are not surprised to find, that Professor Bache's observations led him to a conclusion adverse to the artificial systems of gymnastics, which were so much in fashion throughout this country a few years since. They furnished a poor substitute for the boys' own sports and athletic games, which after all are the true exercises, — Nature's own gymnastics. The hearty zest with which the boys of the English schools enter into their games, traditional through many generations, gives the best illustration of this principle.

The chapter on Eleemosynary Institutions of Education contains a full and interesting account of that antiquated though admirable establishment, the famous Blue-Coat School of London, the "Christ's Hospital." It is an enduring monument to the memory of its founder, "that godly and royal child, King Edward the Sixth, the boy-patron of boys, the serious and holy child, who walked with Cranmer and Ridley," as he has been eulogized by one who enjoyed the charity, or, as he has been styled in loftier strain, "King, child, and seraph." Various orphan schools, and other institutions for the education of destitute children, on the continent, are also described. A censure is passed upon a practice observed in one of these, in Holland, of having one of the pupils to read aloud from the Bible during meals. We have some recollection of having heard of such a usage in some institution in this country, and therefore advert to it. The custom is exceptionable on every principle, both of morals and physiology. If the reading is heeded by the eaters, it is unhealthful ; and, if not, there is irreverence.

The second and remaining part of the Report is devoted to "*Education in General*," the materials being here arranged with reference to the four departments of Infant, Elementary or Primary, Secondary, and Superior Instruction. The plan of this portion of the work is stated as follows.

" After brief notices of certain infant schools, elementary instruction is considered under two heads ; the first, embracing the schools for general purposes, the second, those intended

for special training, as for the education of a rural or industrial population, and of teachers for the elementary schools. Under the former head will be given a notice of the provisions for elementary instruction in Great Britain ; a notice of the primary public instruction in France ; a more particular description of the primary system of Holland, and of some schools which illustrate its application ; a history and general sketch of the Prussian system, with detailed descriptions and notices of several prominent schools ; a notice of the system of primary instruction in Saxony, and of some of the schools, and an account of the method applied in the schools of Bayreuth, in Bavaria. The second division of primary instruction will comprehend descriptions of certain rural schools of Switzerland and Great Britain, an industrial primary school of France, and of some of the schools for primary teachers in Prussia, France, Holland, and Switzerland.

"Passing to the head of secondary instruction, the Report will include descriptions and notices of schools in Great Britain, France, Prussia, and Saxony; each chapter being devoted to a separate country, and preceded by general introductory remarks.

"Under the division of Superior Instruction will be given descriptions of some special schools for the arts, manufactures, and commerce of France, Prussia, and Austria, and the higher agricultural school of Wirtemburg, besides brief notices of a few other similar institutions." — pp. 155, 156.

It is not in our power to enter into any detailed examination of the subjects thus introduced. Nor is it necessary for us to attempt it, our purpose being to express a general sense of the value of the work. Its contents must be carefully examined by those who are concerned in the great work of education. To them we desire to commend Professor Bache's Report, for the sake of the information and the opinions it contains respecting what is truly and comprehensively to be considered as *Education*, — not the mere conveying of information, more properly called tuition, nor intellectual training, but the process of forming the character of the whole man, physical, intellectual, and moral.

We cannot, however, turn from the volume, without adverting, in a somewhat desultory way, to a few matters we are desirous of noticing. The chapter upon Infant-School Systems manifests, what we are glad to find, a strong sense, on the part of the author, of the one great danger, the temptation to the overtasking of the feeble powers of infancy.

Too much cannot be said on that head ; and, whatever may be the advantages of the system, it demands perpetual vigilance to prevent it from becoming absurd, and, worse than absurd, cruel and pernicious. Oberlin's benevolent conception may, by an ill-judged metamorphosis, be perverted into an engine of torture. We must confess, that we continue to have a little more confidence in Nature than in Mr. Wilderspin, with all his devices for infant training.

"The necessity for the existence of such schools must vary much in different countries, and hence their not being adopted in all is no argument against the general principle of infant education. The want of such schools is most felt in a dense and manufacturing population ; least, in a scattered and agricultural one. Independently of essentially different degrees of usefulness, under different circumstances, various prejudices have concurred to prevent the introduction of these schools into some countries. Certain governments, as those of Germany in general, have not lent their influence to them ; and the clergy have, in some parts of Europe, been as warmly opposed to them as in others they have been their friends. The deformed models which have been transplanted from England to other countries, have tended in many cases to foster these prejudices. In some of these the intellectual development of the pupils has been attempted to be carried on to their manifest injury, physically and mentally. In others, a mere mechanical and lifeless routine has been followed. The infant schools which I saw at Paris, called 'écoles d'asile,' seem to me to educate upon wrong principles, having adopted the mechanical arrangements of the English infant schools, without having seized their spirit. I believe, that depriving them of the female superintendence which they formerly enjoyed, to make them a part of the government system, will react further very injuriously upon them." — p. 158.

The description of a juvenile training school, at Glasgow, contains the following passage, on a subject of considerable public interest.

"The play-ground or 'uncovered school-room,' is considered the place in which moral training is to be accomplished, where the principles taught in the school may be carried into practice, so as to become habits. Accordingly, the play-ground is not merely fitted up with the means of exercise, but is planted, in part, with flowers and fruit, accessible to all, but which are to be enjoyed under the injunction, 'Smell, see, but touch not.' It has been, and is, in part, to this day, the reproach

of England and the United States, that public property is always injured ; that flowers cannot bloom, nor fruit ripen, unless when enclosed ; and in France, which is considered as offering an exception to this barbarous practice, I fear that the result is produced rather by the certainty of detection and punishment, than by the influence of a higher motive. Education is the true source of relief from this reproach ; if the child be trained to respect what belongs to the public, the man will never injure it. Such views have been decried as visionary, and the idea that a child could be so trained has been scoffed. But facts prove, that the visionary persons were only a little in advance of the times, and their training system has succeeded, and its principles will finally be so generally adopted, that to doubt them will be as remarkable as the idea itself originally appeared. In this particular school, upwards of one hundred and eighty scholars, from the manufacturing classes of Glasgow, have been in the habit of using the playground for more than an hour and a quarter every day for two years and a half, without damage to the flowers or fruits which it contains. Great attention is paid to neatness in the playground, that the habits inculcated in the school may be carried out here. It affords, also, opportunities of exemplifying lessons on cruelty to animals, on truth, justice, kindness, and other virtues. The means of healthy exercise are given by the more simple kinds of gymnastics, one of the most popular and excellent of which is the circular swing. Wooden prisms are furnished for building, and the more ordinary games of ball, &c., are also practised. There is an opportunity in the playground for a full display of character, which, when observed, and rightly managed, leads to the same system employed by a judicious parent at home, with the advantage of better opportunities of judging of the points of character which require developing or repressing, from the influence of numbers in making these points more prominent." — pp. 187, 188.

A full account is given of the system of education in Prussia, which has attracted so much attention from its highly advanced condition. A very general misapprehension, which prevails respecting the system, is corrected by Professor Bache in a way that is conclusive. The notion has obtained currency, that the Prussian system is of comparatively recent date, or that it has been, within twenty years, moulded into its present form. This notion is traced to a hasty and erroneous assumption by Cousin, in his celebrated Report on Public Instruction in Prussia. The more careful examination of the whole subject by our countryman, conducted more by direct

personal observation, has led to the correction of the mistake, and shown that the system is the result of a long experience, modified and enlarged from time to time, according to the actual results, and the well-ascertained requisitions of the nation.

A chapter is devoted to the seminaries for the education of teachers, generally called "Normal Schools." As it is a subject, which must demand attention with the increase of common schools in this country, we add, in closing this cursory notice of Professor Bache's Report, a portion of his introductory observations on these establishments.

"Originating in Germany, they have been gradually improved there, and brought into their present condition, and have spread into Holland, France, Switzerland, and, more recently, into England, being modified only so far as to adapt them to the circumstances of society and education in these several countries.

"The most imperfect arrangement for providing teachers is that which requires an examination into merely the knowledge of the candidates in the branches required to be taught. This is specially imperfect in the case of elementary instruction, where the knowledge required is small in amount, and where the art of teaching finds its most difficult exercise. The erroneous notion, that an individual can teach whatever he knows, is now generally abandoned, and in those countries which still adhere to the old method, of depending solely upon examinations for securing competent teachers, examination is made not only of the acquirements of a candidate, but of his ability to give instruction. I have called this the most imperfect method, because the mere employment of a teacher, without examination or personal knowledge of his powers, which still occurs in countries where education is neglected, does not deserve to be mentioned in a discussion of the more enlightened national systems.

"The most obvious method of acquiring practice in the art of teaching is by serving in the lower departments of a school, under the eye and direction of an experienced teacher. Accompanied by private study, founded on previous knowledge, and by private lessons, this method may form excellent teachers of those who have particular aptitude for the profession. Considered in the general, however, it must be admitted to have a tendency to produce a routine system in teaching. The pupil-teacher imitates the methods of those with whom he is associated, and which are placed before him as models,

without examining their principles, or discriminating between their merits and defects. He places great stress upon peculiar modes of instruction in particular branches, and when they do not succeed, attributes the fault neither to the methods nor to himself, but to the pupil. The habits of observation and reflection, which enable him to profit by experience, are not developed by this method, and thus, though he may consider experience as a merit, it may produce none of its appropriate results in his case. Accordingly, wherever this mode of preparing teachers has been adopted as a system, as in Holland, or has been incidental to the method of examinations, as in Saxony, it has not stood the test of application in the schools where the modern improvements in teaching have been introduced, much less of a comparison with the method of instruction in special seminaries.

"The most efficacious means of securing qualified teachers are to be found in the seminaries, where a number of young men intending to become teachers are collected, receive a common instruction in the subjects required for the grade of schools in which they propose to teach, or revise and extend this knowledge previously acquired, have lessons in the science and art of teaching, and practice the art under intelligent supervision. At first, these seminaries produced good scholars, who were, however, deficient as teachers. Then, to remedy this defect, lectures and lessons on the science and art of teaching were multiplied, forming good theoretical teachers, but who were still wanting in practice, which had to be acquired after entering their profession, and, therefore, at the expense of the first pupils placed under their charge. This difficulty is entirely obviated by schools attached to the seminaries, in which the theoretical lessons may be put in practice, and where the future teachers may observe the methods of others, try their own skill in the art under inspection, and, finally, take part in the regular instruction.

"The profession of the teacher is raised into respectability by the considerable acquirements exacted of him, and his salary is placed upon a footing appropriate to the outlay of time and means which has been made in reaching the profession. It is a mistake to suppose, that the low salaries given in some countries, as in Prussia, for example, indicate that a low estimate is placed upon the station of the teacher; the very reverse is the fact in the particular country mentioned, and the salary will be found adapted to the scale of expenditure of the country, and to the general style and cost of living.

"When education is to be rapidly advanced, seminaries for teachers afford the means of securing this result. An eminent

teacher is selected as director of the seminary, and by the aid of competent assistants, and while benefiting the community by the instruction given in the schools attached to the seminary, trains, yearly, from thirty to forty youths in the enlightened practice of his methods ; these in their turn become teachers of schools, which they are fit at once to conduct, without the failures and mistakes usual with novices ; for, though beginners in name, they have acquired, in the course of the two or three years spent at the seminary, an experience equivalent to many years of unguided effort. This result has been fully realized in the success of the attempts to spread the methods of Pestalozzi and others through Prussia. The plan has been adopted, and is yielding its appropriate fruits, in Holland, Switzerland, France, and Saxony, while in Austria, where the method of preparing teachers by their attendance on the primary schools is still adhered to, the schools are stationary, and behind those of Northern and Middle Germany.

" These seminaries produce a strong *esprit de corps* among teachers, which tends powerfully to interest them in their profession, to attach them to it, to elevate it in their eyes, and to stimulate them to improve constantly upon the attainments with which they may have commenced its exercise. By their aid a standard of examination in the theory and practice of instruction is furnished, which may be fairly exacted of candidates who have chosen a different way to obtain access to the profession.

" Objections have been urged against seminaries for teachers, which apply rather to a defective organization than to the system itself. First, that the youths issuing from them being over-taught, are, in consequence, dissatisfied with their duties, and leave the profession to push themselves forward in a different career of life ; and, second, that theoretical, not practical teachers, are formed by them. The first objection points out the necessity for restricting the instruction to that which is essential to a complete fulfilment of the duties of the teachers educated in these schools. The seminary should not go further, and hence the connexion of such establishments with secondary or other higher schools is inadmissible. If the tendency of a seminary course is to render the teacher dissatisfied with his occupation, experience shows that it is a fault in the particular course, the defect not being general to this class of institutions. That a pupil of talent may seek other and more congenial roads to station in life, is no reproach to the seminary where he was educated. The institution secures the services of this pupil to primary instruction by his pledge at entrance, for a number of years, in return for the education

which he has received, and has so far benefited the community. If by any means it prevents the individual from rising to the position where his talents would place him, an act of positive injustice is committed. Not only the instruction, however, but the whole plan of living in the seminary should be adapted to the future destination of the pupil, and indulgences should not be allowed, which would produce wants not subsequently to be gratified ; such is, in fact, the very system of all properly regulated institutions of this class. That mere theoretical teachers are formed in well-conducted seminaries, is by no means the fact. Every care, on the contrary, is taken to avoid this ; it is true, that general principles are inculcated, in order that routine in teaching may be avoided ; but these principles are constantly applied, and under circumstances where error is sure to be pointed out by the observation of classmates and teachers, and where it can hardly escape correction." — pp. 323 — 327.

ART. III.—*A Discourse on the Aborigines of the Valley of the Ohio ; in which the Opinions of the Conquest of that Valley by the Iroquois or Six Nations in the Seventeenth Century, supported by Cadwallader Colden, of New York, Governor Pownall, of Massachusetts, Dr. Franklin, Hon. De Witt Clinton, of New York, and Judge Haywood, of Tennessee, are examined and contested ; to which are prefixed some Remarks on the Study of History.* Prepared at the Request of the Historical Society of Ohio. By WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON, of North Bend. *Ne incognita pro cognitis habeamus.* — Cicero. Cincinnati, Ohio. 1838. 8vo. pp. 51.

THIS pamphlet discusses several important topics in the history of the native tribes of our continent, with spirit and ability. We propose to offer our readers some account of its contents, with a few extracts, as a specimen of the manner in which the subject is treated by the distinguished author. We have no doubt, that they will be generally interested in learning the views of one, whose long official connexion with the Indian tribes, in peace and in war, and whose familiarity with the topography of the region in question, give to his